



MUSEUM MANIA

World War I in the Middle East: Research Project

Recommended Grade Levels 9-12

Course/Content Area: World History; Geography

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ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS:

- Why was World War I a turning point in shaping the modern Middle East?
- In what ways do problems in the Middle East today have their roots in World War I?



THE NATIONAL
WWI MUSEUM
AND MEMORIAL

SUMMARY: The Middle East played a major role in World War I, and, conversely, the war was important in shaping the development of the modern Middle East. One might even say that World War I began and ended with Middle East-related conflicts (1914 Sarajevo assassination related to the declining Ottoman Empire – 1923 Treaty of Lausanne with Turkey, the Ottoman Empire’s successor).

STANDARDS ALIGNMENT: Common Core and national standards (Appendix F)

TIME NEEDED:

- 3-5 50-minute class periods to create the project (This will depend on how much is assigned as homework.)
- 1 additional day to present projects and view others’ work

OBJECTIVES: Students will:

- analyze the issues and impact of World War I, which fundamentally transformed the Middle East.
- explore the ways in which the conflict and the treaties which resulted from WWI laid the groundwork for contemporary political and social conflicts in the region.
- participate in a dialogue about the war.
- integrate Language Arts skills (reading, writing, research) into the study of history.
- develop critical thinking, literacy, and research skills.

INTERDISCIPLINARY: This active-learning lesson helps students learn more about World War I and the modern Middle East, both of which are important parts of the high school curriculum. Students meet important academic standards in Geography, World History, and English: increasing their reading, research, and presentation skills, working collaboratively on a research project, and presenting it to their school colleagues and parents. The creation of a Museum of the Middle East in World War I can be a stand-alone project; however, it would work particularly well as part of a greater collaborative (possibly school-wide) museum on World War I as a whole.

THEMES & CONNECTIONS: Begin this lesson after students have a general background of World War I, including diplomatic, military, social, and political developments during the war.

- MATERIALS NEEDED:**
- Copies of documents for each student:
 - overview of World War I in the Middle East (Background)
 - pre/post assessment quizzes (Appendix A)
 - list of projects (Appendix B)
 - description of the assignment for students (Appendix C)
 - selected resources (Appendix D)
 - Project board or materials for each project
 - Museum Viewers' assignment - document to be provided to other teachers for their students to use in viewing the exhibit (Appendix E)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Students need an overview of the Middle East during World War I. This can be reviewed as homework or in class.

Overview – World War I in the Middle East

The Middle East played a major role in World War I, and, conversely, the war was important in shaping the development of the modern Middle East. One might even say that World War I began and ended with Middle East-related conflicts. (The beginning, the event that formed the immediate cause of the war, was the assassination of the Austro-Hungarian Archduke Franz Ferdinand by a group of Bosnian high school students in June 1914, and that assassination was a direct result of the long process of separating Balkan countries from the fading Ottoman Empire. The end, the last treaty arising from the war nearly five years after it ended, was the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne, ending the conflict with Turkey that arose from the failed Treaty of Sevres in 1920 that was supposed to have ended World War I in the Middle East.) Since Middle Eastern issues are so important in World War I, and World War I is so important in understanding modern Middle Eastern history, isn't it surprising that U.S. teachers/students don't study very much about history of the war in that area of the world? (Could it be because most of the significant events in that area occurred without American involvement – mostly before and after the U.S. involvement in the war? Or could it be that we just have a European/American-centered view of the war?) Regardless, here is a brief overview of some of the events and issues of World War I in this key region of the world.

Middle Eastern issues and the origins of the war (why a group of Bosnian teenagers were gunning for an Austrian archduke and what that had to do with the Middle East – and a world war):

If you had been a European or American living in 1914 who was interested in foreign affairs, you would undoubtedly have been debating “the Eastern Question”: the future of the areas that still remained part of the Ottoman Empire. Every educated person living in 1914 knew that, after 600 years as a world power, the once great Ottoman Empire was struggling to adjust to changing times. Many people were calling it “the sick man of Europe” and questioning whether the sick man's death would lead to a major war among the European powers. Yet, people had been worrying about the Eastern Question for the past century and a half. Why was the issue an especially dangerous problem in 1914?

The answers for this are complicated, but three factors in particular are relevant to this discussion. Each of them involves the Great Powers of Europe: Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. (Remember that the U.S. was not yet considered a “great power.”)

First, these powerful European countries were engaged in a race for foreign colonies – in order to expand their economic and political influence. The declining Ottoman Empire contained many areas that they all wanted to control: the Turkish Straits, for example, because of their strategic significance, the Arab lands because of their resources and location along the Mediterranean, and the Balkan Peninsula because of its location in Europe.

Second, two of the powers – Austria-Hungary and Russia – were multi-national empires in a time in which modern nationalism was making their political structure and organization seem very outdated. The Austrian Empire was particularly threatened by Serbian nationalism in the Balkans because Austria-Hungary contained millions of people who spoke some dialect of the Serbo-Croatian language, and some of them were talking of breaking away and uniting them with Serbia. This possibility worried the Austrian leadership, who then wanted to take over formerly Ottoman territories in Europe, like Bosnia. (This was not because the Austrians really wanted more Serbian-speaking people in their empire, but because they didn't want Serbia to have those lands and become more powerful.) Russia, of course, priding itself on being the protector of Orthodox Christians, backed up Serbia and its interests. The result: any problem in the Balkans would easily lead to a bigger war between Russia and Austria.

This brings us to the third factor: the newly consolidated alliance system, pitting Austria, Germany, and Italy, on one side, against Great Britain, France, and Russia, on the other. This meant that if Austria were to go to war with Russia, Germany and Italy would back Austria, while Great Britain and France would rush to the defense of their ally, Russia. In other words, everyone knew in 1914 that a small spark could ignite a really big war.

Another thing that “everyone” knew in 1914 was that war was coming and that it would probably begin in the Balkans. Actually, there had been almost continuous conflict in the Balkans for just over a century. Yet far from lessening, the conflicts just seemed to be intensifying in the early years of the 20th century. In 1908 Austria had formally annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina, a previously Ottoman province that it had occupied since the 1870s. This act had enraged nationalists throughout the Balkans and intensified the hatred between Austria and Serbia. Then, there were the two Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913, which involved several of the small Balkan countries and the Ottoman Empire. (Later, some people would dub World War I the “Third Balkan War.”)

By 1914 Bosnia was a center of unrest, especially among the small educated part of the population, most of whom were young people in their teens and twenties. (Many Bosnians were illiterate, so high school students – and the few young people studying at universities in other countries – were the intellectual elite of Bosnia.) These young people wanted political and social change – and they wanted change FAST! The Young Bosnia movement, a loose collection of secret societies, sprang up in local high schools – and its members sought connections with like-minded South Slavic (“Yugoslav”) young people within Austria-Hungary and Serbia. (Note that all Bosnians speak a dialect of the same language as the Serbs, and Bosnians of the Orthodox Christian religion, then the largest group in Bosnia, even considered themselves to be Serbs.) With no army or government of their own, these youthful revolutionaries knew that change could only come about through an intervention of powerful countries like Russia or Britain. In their view, the only way to get this intervention would be in the event of a crisis. Many of them believed that the quickest way to provoke a crisis was through political assassination – assassinating an Austrian political leader would lead to Austrian intervention in Bosnia, which would lead to Russian intercession in Bosnia's behalf. It seemed to make perfect sense, especially when news got out that the heir to the Austrian throne would parade through the streets of Sarajevo on a day that would particularly offend the Serbs: the anniversary of the day on which they had lost their independence to Ottoman conquerors. (You can imagine that much of the population of Bosnia would be outraged to see a parade by another conqueror on that day of mourning!)

The assassination of Franz Ferdinand was not the work of one – or even two – students: it was a conspiracy that directly involved dozens of people and indirectly involved many, many more. Six young people (five of whom were high school students between the ages of 16 and 19) went to the parade carrying weapons and intending to kill the royal visitor; others assisted or at least knew about the plot; a number of officials from Serbia (one of whom was a member of the government of Serbia – though he was acting without the authorization of his government) supplied the weapons and other assistance.

No one was surprised that the assassination took place and that it led to a war! However, it was a great shock to the students involved in the plot – and to most other people at the time – that the war turned out to be so long and so incredibly bloody. The killing of the archduke and his wife set off a chain of events: Austria attacked Serbia; Russia backed Serbia; the alliance system came into play pulling Britain and France in on Russia's side and Germany in on Austria's. Not to be outdone, the Ottoman Empire joined in too – on the side of the Central Powers (Germany, Austria). The Great War had begun.

The Middle East during the war (from military campaigns to hunting locusts, from an Arab revolt to the Armenian genocide):

The Middle East was directly involved in World War I, and so it was affected by the war in all aspects of life. The most immediate impact was on young men: Turks, Kurds, Armenians, Arabs and others fought as part of the Ottoman army. They fought against Russian troops along the northeastern border of the empire and against Anzac (Australian, New Zealand) troops in the Turkish straits (the great battle of Gallipoli). They fought British troops – from Great Britain itself and the British commonwealth – along with troops from various parts of the empire (India, Africa), that massed in Egypt and campaigned throughout the Arab lands (Egypt, Palestine, Lebanon, Syria, Arabia, Iraq). Although the Ottomans won a number of important battles (such as Gallipoli), they also lost a lot of men. In addition to combat, all the forces fighting in the Middle East – on both sides – struggled with disease (spread by war) and scarcity of water and supplies. Ottoman commanders, fighting to protect their own territory, also had to contend with local administrative issues, such as an infestation of locusts in Palestine.

In addition to all this, the Ottoman Empire – along with other multi-national empires such as its ally Austria-Hungary and its enemy Russia – found itself facing internal unrest from its national minorities. In the case of the Ottoman Empire, Great Britain used Arab dissatisfaction with Ottoman rule to the advantage of the Allied cause – the “divide and conquer” approach. First, they made a deal with the Arabs. As early as 1915, Britain had opened negotiations with Sharif Hussein of Saudi Arabia, promising Hussein that after the war, he would rule a large Arab country that would presumably include most of the lands between Persia and Egypt (including today's Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine/Israel, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and other countries). Hussein led a revolt, assisted by a young, Arabic-speaking British officer named T.E. Lawrence (later called “Lawrence of Arabia”). Neither man realized that the Western powers had no intention of honoring their commitments to the Arabs. As early as May 1916, France and Britain signed the secret Sykes-Picot Agreement in which they made plans to divide the Arab lands into French and British spheres of influence. Further, in 1917 the British signed the Balfour Declaration, indicating an acceptance of the idea of establishing a Jewish state in Palestine. The inconsistency of these plans is obvious: within two years, the West had promised the territory of Palestine to three

different parties: the Jews (then a small minority in Palestine), the Arabs (under Sharif Hussein), and the British!

Although the Ottoman Empire, throughout its long history, had had a generally good track record with regard to human rights (long-standing tolerance of its Jewish and Christian populations), the pressures of the world war and the rise of modern nationalism led to the worst kind of wartime abuse: genocide. Since the rise of nationalism, there had been tensions between the Ottoman government and the Armenian population, and sporadic persecutions of Armenians had occurred since the late 19th century. With the pressure of a world war, some members of the Ottoman government looked at the Armenians with increased distrust. After all, many Armenians lived near the Russian border (a combat zone), and because both Armenians and Russians were Christians, the Ottomans suspected that the Armenians might ally with the enemy of the Ottoman state. In 1915 Ottoman forces began rounding up Armenians, especially in the eastern part of the country. Between 1 and 1 ½ million Armenian men, women, and children died – either killed directly or marched across eastern Turkey and into the Syrian desert, where they died of disease and starvation. This is considered the first modern genocide in world history; unfortunately, it would not be the last.

The Middle East and the peace settlements after the war (division, foreign occupation, renewed war, population exchanges):

It must have been obvious even before the armistice ending the war was signed in November 1918 that the Ottoman Empire had lost the war. Its European territories had already been lost; its Arab territories were falling away; its population was exhausted – and depleted – by three wars over the last six years. However, the settlement that followed the war – the Treaty of Sevres in 1920 – was so harsh that it must have come as a shock to people in the Middle East.

The Treaty of Sevres was created mainly by Britain and France. (The U.S. had withdrawn from the international peace negotiations, while Russia had fallen into revolution and civil war.) Middle Eastern leaders were mostly excluded for the decision-making process.

According to the Treaty of Sevres, the Arab lands were separated from the Ottoman Empire, but that did not mean that Arab nationalists got the large, independent Arab state that they expected. Except for the Kingdom of the Hijaz, which became independent (and several years later joined with other territories to become part of Saudi Arabia), the Arabs did not achieve real independence. Instead, France and Britain divided the region among themselves: the French declaring a “mandate” over Syria and Lebanon; Britain a mandate over Iraq and Palestine.

The Kurdish people were even more disappointed by the settlement. After some initial talk of creating a small Kurdish state (from territories that are now part of Turkey), plans for even a limited Kurdistan were soon scrapped. Kurdish lands were divided among Iran, Iraq, Turkey and Syria. Today, the Kurds are the largest group of people in the world without their own country.

It was in Turkey, however, that opposition to the Treaty of Sevres led to another war. The treaty was a totally unacceptable blow to Turkish nationalists. They might have accepted the fact that the treaty ended the Ottoman Empire and took away all its Arab territories (which must have seemed inevitable). However, they could never accept that the treaty divided Turkey itself. Greece, Italy, and France occupied sections of Turkey-proper, the Turkish Straits were put under international

control, and France and Britain were considering giving large sections of territory to the Kurds in the southeast and the Armenians in the northeast. It was especially galling when Greek occupying forces marched in – after all, Greece had been under Ottoman rule, not the other way around!

The revolt against the Allies, which began even before the ink was dry on the Treaty of Sevres, became known in Turkey as the “War of Independence.” Led by Mustafa Kemal, later called “Atatürk,” the fighting caused the Allies to withdraw occupying forces from Anatolia. In 1923 the Treaty of Lausanne finally ended the last conflict that was part of the First World War. The borders of today’s Turkey came about as a result, to the bitter disappointment of Armenians and Kurds – and Greeks. The resulting population exchanges – forced expulsions of ½ million Turks (Muslims) from Greece and of 1 ½ million Greeks (Christians) from western Turkey – became part of the agreement, and this policy set an unfortunate precedent for future international settlements.

Aftermath:

The First World War would have a lasting effect on the Middle East. Millions died. In fact, after 11 years of warfare from the Balkan Wars through the Turkish War of Independence, so many young Turkish men died that in parts of Anatolia women outnumbered men by 5-1. Total Ottoman population losses may have reached 5 million people if one counts death in combat, death from disease (including the Spanish influenza), the Armenian genocide, and the expulsion of peoples during the Greek-Turkish population exchanges.

There were lasting political effects as well; one can even say that the roots of many contemporary conflicts in the Middle East go back to the Great War and the settlements that came out of it. The ongoing enmity between Armenia and its neighbors Turkey and Azerbaijan can be traced directly back to the Armenian genocide and Turkey’s refusal to acknowledge it. Over the past century, Kurdish unrest has been an ongoing issue in Turkey, Iran, Iraq, and Syria, sometimes flaring into outright warfare, revolution, and even genocide (for example, Iraqi measures against its rural Kurdish population in the 1980s). Bloody civil wars in Lebanon and, most recently, in Syria – as well as conflicts in Iraq - are rooted in political and social issues that developed or were intensified during the mandate period that resulted from the First World War treaties. Finally, the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, probably the greatest, most continuous source of unrest in the Middle East, has been greatly accelerated by wartime promises and post-war policies.

It is generally acknowledged that World War I was a transformative event in world history, possibly the single greatest catalyst for change on a global scale, marking the end of 19th century institutions and the beginning of a new era. This statement is especially true in the Middle East. Studying the Great War in that area of the world raises important military, social, political, and health issues that even one century later, continue to affect the world in which we live.

LESSON

PRE-ASSESSMENT:

- Prior to reading background information, give students a quiz to determine their knowledge of Middle East involvement with WWI. (Appendix A)
- Keep their scores; these will be compared with post-assessments to determine growth in content knowledge.

DIRECTIONS:

1. Students work individually or in groups (size may vary as the teacher sees fit) to research a project and create a museum exhibit. (See the List of Projects, Description of the Assignment for Students, and Selected Resources – Appendices B-D). Students should be creative in developing displays, “artifacts,” films, activities, a variety of kinds of exhibits.
2. An important part of this lesson is having student work displayed in a large public exhibition. (As one of my former students told a local news reporter covering an exhibition at our school, “I worked really hard on this, but it was worth it because I got a lot of attention for it.”) How you do the museum depends on your interests, needs, and community. I usually took over a large public space (the school library or gymnasium) for an entire school day, inviting teachers in the school to bring their classes and inviting parents, school district personnel, and the general public to visit as well.
3. Encourage other teachers or student groups to join your classes in creating and displaying projects. (For example, other World History teachers could have their students create similar projects on World War I in other regions of the world; U.S. History teachers could have their students explore American participation in the war.) Alternatively, you might create an online museum, which can be shared with other schools and communities.
4. Provide visiting teachers the option of giving their students a viewers’ assignment, so that they can report on what they viewed. (See the Museum Viewers’ Assignment included in this lesson – Appendix E.) Students can be required to view the entire exhibit and then use the guidelines provided in order to write, blog, or give an oral report analyzing in detail a certain number of exhibits of their choice.

POST-ASSESSMENT:

- Students will again take the quiz used as pre-assessment. (Appendix A) Compare scores to determine growth in content knowledge.
- Note: The majority of students’ grades for this unit should be based on the quality of their research and presentation of their research findings. (Have them present the material to the class, submit an annotated bibliography, and, of course, display their work for their fellow students, parents, and/or community members.)

MODIFICATIONS/ACCOMMODATIONS:

- Some topics – maps, timeline – can be adapted for English Language Learners or IEP students.
- Students may be required to visit other students' exhibits at the museum. They may write a short formal summary of one or more of the other exhibits or write a journal or blog entry responding to the exhibit(s).
- Students could also write up their project as a research paper, possibly in cooperation with their English teacher.
- Students may adapt/expand their entry in order to compete in National History Day regional competition in your area.

APPENDIX A:

PRE/POST ASSESSMENT

1. Provide one reason why the future of the Ottoman Empire was a major consideration for the Great Powers of Europe immediately prior to the outbreak of WWI.
2. What was the Young Bosnia movement hoping to achieve with the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand?
3. Name a group that fought as part of the Ottoman army.
4. Who did the Ottoman army fight against?
5. Name an area where the bulk of the Ottoman armies' fighting took place.
6. What types of promises did Allied nations make to national minorities as they used the "divide and conquer" strategy in the war? Name one.
7. Why did the Ottomans distrust Armenians?
8. What was the result of this distrust?
9. Under the Treaty of Sevres plans for Kurdistan, a state for Kurdish peoples, disappeared. Into which nations were Kurdish lands divided instead?
10. Why did the Turkish "War of Independence" result from the Treaty of Sevres?

ANSWER KEY

1. The Ottoman Empire was especially important to the Great Powers of Europe in 1914 because:
 - Many nations wished to gain colonial control over Ottoman Empire holdings.
 - Serbian nationalism increased Austria-Hungarian fear of some of their population breaking away & Russia fighting to defend their cause; the possibility of war was heightened.
 - The established alliance system guaranteed a war of great scope if fighting broke out in the Balkans.
2. Young Bosnians wanted political and social change and believed by creating a crisis with Austria they would gain the aid of Russia acting on Bosnia's behalf.
3. Turks, Kurds, Armenians, Arabs fought in the Ottoman army.
4. The Ottoman army fought against Russian, Anzac and British troops.
5. The Ottoman army largely fought in the Turkish straits (Gallipoli), Egypt and Arab lands (modern day Palestine, Lebanon, Syria, Arabia, Iraq).
6. Promises were made about redistribution of Ottoman Empire lands after the war:
 - Great Britain promised control of Arab lands to Sharif Hussein of Saudi Arabia.
 - The Sykes-Picot Agreement divided Arab lands into French and British spheres of influence.
 - With the Balfour Declaration, the British offered to establish a Jewish state in Palestine.
7. Armenians and Russians shared the Christian religion; it was believed due to their geographic proximity to Russia they may side with the enemy against the Ottomans.
8. Due to Ottoman distrust of Armenians, they were forced out of the country and into the Syrian desert where most died of disease and starvation.
9. Post-war, Kurdish lands were divided into Iran, Iraq, Turkey and Syria.
10. The Treaty of Sevres divided Turkey without regard to culture or history, giving territories to groups Turks found unacceptable. The "War of Independence" was waged as a result.

APPENDIX B:

LIST OF PROJECTS/EXHIBITS FOR THE MUSEUM

1. The Ottoman Empire joins the war
 - Why did the Ottoman Empire join the war, and why did it join on the side of the Central Powers?
 - Describe Ottoman relations with the Great Powers of Europe on the eve of the war.
 - Describe Ottoman relations with its Balkan neighbors in the years just before the war – in what ways is World War I the “third Balkan War”?
2. Overview of the war in the Middle East: timeline and maps
3. Combatants in the Middle East
 - Who fought in the Middle East and on what side?
 - Provide statistics, maps of countries of origin, illustrations.
4. Army life and leadership
 - What was life like in the British/Allied armies versus that in the Ottoman army?
 - Use “artifacts” – models, quotes from primary source accounts, photos.
5. The Arab Revolt
 - Where did it occur, and who were its leaders?
 - What were the participants’ goals?
 - Were the goals of local leaders different from or the same as those of British advisors?
 - Use “artifacts” – models, quotes from primary source accounts, photos, maps.
6. Weapons and tactics
Use “artifacts” – models, quotes from primary source accounts, photos.
7. Audio booths or films
Record primary source quotes from diaries and personal accounts.
8. Newspaper archives/exhibit
 - Display important newspaper accounts from that time.
 - Highlight and comment on important quotes and information (or sometimes, misinformation).
9. The battles/campaigns (1 or 2 people can be assigned to each one)
 - Gallipoli
 - Sinai/Palestine
 - Suez Canal
 - Caucasus
 - Mesopotamia

- Use models/maps/charts, chronology, short biographies of famous people, primary source quotes.

10. Armenian Genocide

- What happened?
- Why?
- What was the world's reaction?
- Use photos, quotes from primary source accounts, newspaper coverage at the time.

11. Medical threats and medical care

- What diseases and medical conditions arose or spread more widely because of the war?
- What measures were taken to combat/prevent disease and to aid people suffering from disease and other wartime conditions?

12. Diplomacy

- What negotiations, agreements, and treaties occurred during the war between the Allies and the Ottoman Empire?
- Between the Allies and interested parties in the Middle East – such as the Arabs and the Jews?
- Be sure to use quotes from treaties, letters, agreements, etc.

13. Ending the war: treaties and new arrangements for the Middle East

- Compare the Treaty of Sevres and the Treaty of Lausanne.
- Use maps, quotes, and descriptions of what people thought about the arrangements.

14. The Turkish “war of liberation” as a consequence of the Treaty of Sevres

- Describe the causes, leadership and consequences.
- Use photos, quotes, descriptions, and a short biography of its leader.

15. Remembering the war: memorials and commemorations

- How is the war/aftermath remembered in the Middle East today?
- Use photos and explanations of memorials as well as quotes from Middle Eastern scholars describing the importance of the battle/war.

At the end:

Together, all groups should work together on a section called: “Consequences and Lasting Impact of World War I in the Middle East.”

APPENDIX C:

STUDENT ASSIGNMENT DESCRIPTION

Topic/Exhibit We Are Creating:

Members of My Group:

Research Process:

Step 1: Read about the topic. Be sure to include primary sources (eyewitness accounts such as diaries, memoirs, newspaper accounts from that time, treaties, etc.).

Step 2: Make a list of the important information you need to include in your project. Refer to your topic frequently so that you include RELEVANT information.

Step 3: Find pictures, maps, and descriptive eyewitness quotes that you need to go with it. You may want to create replicas of artifacts (models, etc.).

Step 4: As you go along, keep a bibliography so that you – and your teacher – know where the information came from. You may be asked to submit it as part of your grade and/or place it with your exhibit.

Step 5: Create your exhibit. Be sure to tell your story clearly.

- A. Be creative! Decide how to make your exhibit interesting as well as informative.
- B. Clearly label your exhibit (top or beginning) so that everyone knows what your topic is.
- C. Put events/people in a logical order.
- D. Arrange pictures, models, and quotes. Be sure to label each one clearly (date, place, description, etc.). Also, if you use a photo or quote, be sure to put who took the picture or said the quote.
- E. Write all of your descriptions in an easily “readable” form:
 - Use short writings (not paragraphs, but sentences!)
 - Put everything in large print so viewers don’t have to squint.
 - Keep primary source quotes kept short (or if you are using a whole newspaper article or document, highlight the important parts.
- F. At the end of your exhibit, put a statement about important conclusions you have reached. (You can also include this as part of the “consequences and legacy” section at the end of the museum.)

- G. Ask one of your classmates, a parent, or someone else to look at it and give their advice. (You may end up knowing the topic so well that you leave out an important piece of information, forgetting that others don't know it.)

APPENDIX D:

Selected Resources: NOT a Comprehensive List, But a Place to Start

Secondary Sources (articles, books, or chapters from books that describe the history of the times):

Aksakal, Mustafa. "The Limits of Diplomacy: The Ottoman Empire and the First World War." *Foreign Policy Analysis* (2011) 7, 197–203.

This article analyzes why the Ottoman Empire entered World War I.

Armenian Genocide Museum-Institute. <http://www.genocide-museum.am/eng/index.php>

At this site, you can find information, photos, etc. about the Armenian genocide.

Astourian, Stephan. "The Armenian Genocide: An Interpretation." *The History Teacher*, Vol. 23, No. 2 (Feb., 1990), 111-160.

This article analyzes the causes and processes of the Armenian genocide.

Barker, A.J. *The Neglected War: Mesopotamia 1914-1918*. London: Faber & Faber, 1967.

This book tells about Iraq during World War I.

"British Documentary – The Ottoman Empire in World War I." *World War I in the Middle East*. <http://islamandthegreatwar.umwblogs.org/british-documentary-the-ottoman-empire-in-world-war-i>

This short British documentary on World War I in the Middle East can be watched entirely online. It is posted in five short segments of approximately 10 minutes each. It covers most topics related to the Middle East during the war.

Bruce, Anthony. *The Last Crusade: The Palestine Campaign in the First World War*. London: John Murray Publishers, 2002.

The book describes Palestine during World War I.

Cleveland, William L. *A History of the Modern Middle East*. 2nd Ed. Boulder: Westview Press, 2000. Pages: 146-167.

This chapter of a well-regarded text gives an overview of World War I in the Ottoman Empire and the peace settlements that ended the empire.

Lawrence and the Arab Revolts: Warfare and Soldiers of the Middle East 1914-1918. Ed. Martin Windrow. London: Osprey Publishing, 1989.

You'll find some great pictures of Middle Eastern military uniforms/units in this book.

The Near East and the First World War. <http://www.worldwar1.com/neareast/neareasthome.htm>

This website has articles and photos on nearly any topic. Just click on the appropriate link(s).

Shaw, Stanford J. and Ezel Kural Shaw. *History of the Ottoman Empire and Modern Turkey*. Vol. 2. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1977. Pages 310-369.

This is a brief overview of the Ottoman Empire in World War I (in both Turkey and the Arab lands), the peace settlement that followed, and the Turkish revolution and second peace settlement after that. The assigned pages cover the period from 1914 (outbreak of the war) – 1923 (Treaty of Lausanne).

Tauber, Eliezer. *The Arab Movements in World War I*. London: Frank Cass, 1993. Pages 244-260.
These pages are the summary and conclusion section of Tauber's important book on Arab nationalism during World War I.

Travers, Tim. *Gallipoli 1915*. Stroud, UK: Tempus Publishing Inc, 2001.
The book analyzes the Battle of Gallipoli.

Woodward, David R. "The Middle East during World War I." *BBC History*.
http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwone/middle_east_01.shtml
This article is a short overview.

World War I in the Middle East. <http://islamandthegreatwar.umwblogs.org/>
This terrific website has links to articles on many different topics.

Primary Sources (eyewitness accounts such as diaries, memoirs, photographs, treaties, newspaper accounts):

Best, Kenneth. *A Chaplain at Gallipoli: The Great War Diaries of Kenneth Best*. Ed. Gavin Roynon. London: Simon and Schuster, 2011.
This is a diary from the BRITISH point of view, not the Ottoman, but it's still useful.

Fasih, Mehmed. *Lone Pine (Bloody Ridge) Diary of Lt. Mehmed Fasih, 5th Imperial Ottoman Army, Gallipoli, 1915: The Campaign as Viewed from Ottoman Trenches*. Istanbul: Denizler Kitabevi, 1997.
This diary is by an Ottoman officer at Gallipoli.

Langley, Tony. "The Turkish Army at War: A Photo Essay." *The Near East and the First World War*.
http://www.worldwar1.com/nearcast/ne_taalum.htm
This is a collection of photos on many different topics involving the Ottoman army in World War I.

New York Times articles. Do a search of their archives limiting the search to the dates of the First World War and using a useful key word or phrase. (Ask your teacher for help with this.)

Ölçen, Mehmet Arif. *Vetluga Memoir: A Turkish Prisoner of War in Russia, 1916-1918*. Gainesville: University Press of Florida, 1995.
The beginning of this diary (before he was taken prisoner) tells of the experiences of the Ottoman army fighting Russia on the Caucasian front.

Schreiner, George Abel. *From Berlin to Bagdad: Behind the Scenes in the Near East*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1918.
These writings are by a war correspondent of the Associated Press of America, who observed and wrote about events in the Ottoman Empire.

Times (London) articles. Do a search of their archives limiting the search to the dates of the First World War and using a useful key word or phrase. (Ask your teacher for help with this.)

Turjman, Ihsan. "The Diary of Ihsan Turjman." In *Year of the Locust: A Soldier's Diary and the Erasure of Palestine's Ottoman Past*. Salim Tamari and Ihsan Salih Turjman. Berkeley: University of California Press, 2011.

This is a very descriptive diary with information on events in Palestine, on medical issues, and on Arab nationalism in the Ottoman Empire.

APPENDIX E:

MUSEUM VIEWERS' GUIDE

View all the exhibits at the museum. Then choose _____ of the exhibits to report on. For **each** of the exhibits that you choose to describe, answer the following questions on a separate sheet of paper:

1. What is the title of the exhibit?
2. In a few sentences, summarize the important facts/events that you learned from it.
3. Describe one fact that you learned from the exhibit that you didn't know before.
4. Describe one picture, map, "artifact" or model that interested you and say *why* you found it interesting.
5. Identify one primary source (eyewitness account – document, diary, memoir, newspaper article, etc.) that was used in the exhibit. How did it help you understand the topic better?
6. List one thing that you learned from the exhibit that surprised you. Why was it different from what you expected?

APPENDIX F:

STANDARDS ALIGNMENT

Common Core College and Career Readiness Anchor Standards for Reading for students in grades 6–12:

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.1: Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it; cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.2: Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.3: Analyze how and why individuals, events, or ideas develop and interact over the course of a text.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.4: Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.5: Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.6: Assess how point of view or purpose shapes the content and style of a text.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.7: Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.8: Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, including the validity of the reasoning as well as the relevance and sufficiency of the evidence.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.9: Analyze how two or more texts address similar themes or topics in order to build knowledge or to compare the approaches the authors take.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.CCRA.R.10: Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently.

Common Core English Language Arts Standards for History/Social Studies for students in grades 9-10

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, attending to such features as the date and origin of the information.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.2: Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary of how key events or ideas develop over the course of the text.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.3: Analyze in detail a series of events described in a text; determine whether earlier events caused later ones or simply preceded them.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary describing political, social, or economic aspects of history/social science.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.6: Compare the point of view of two or more authors for how they treat the same or similar topics, including which details they include and emphasize in their respective accounts.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.8: Assess the extent to which the reasoning and evidence in a text support the author's claims.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.9: Compare and contrast treatments of the same topic in several primary and secondary sources.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.9-10.10: By the end of grade 10, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 9–10 text complexity band independently and proficiently.

Common Core English Language Arts Standards for History/Social Studies for students in grades 11-12

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.1: Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, connecting insights gained from specific details to an understanding of the text as a whole.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.2: Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary that makes clear the relationships among the key details and ideas.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.3: Evaluate various explanations for actions or events and determine which explanation best accords with textual evidence, acknowledging where the text leaves matters uncertain.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.4: Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including analyzing how an author uses and refines the meaning of a key term over the course of a text (e.g., how Madison defines *faction* in *Federalist* No. 10).

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.5: Analyze in detail how a complex primary source is structured, including how key sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text contribute to the whole.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.6: Evaluate authors' differing points of view on the same historical event or issue by assessing the authors' claims, reasoning, and evidence.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.7: Integrate and evaluate multiple sources of information presented in diverse formats and media (e.g., visually, quantitatively, as well as in words) in order to address a question or solve a problem.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.8: Evaluate an author's premises, claims, and evidence by corroborating or challenging them with other information.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.9: Integrate information from diverse sources, both primary and secondary, into a coherent understanding of an idea or event, noting discrepancies among sources.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RH.11-12.10: By the end of grade 12, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 11–CCR text complexity band independently and proficiently.

National Standards for English Language Arts (Developed by the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE).)

1. Students read a wide range of print and nonprint texts to build an understanding of texts, of themselves, and of the cultures of the United States and the world; to acquire new information; to respond to the needs and demands of society and the workplace; and for personal fulfillment. Among these texts are fiction and nonfiction, classic and contemporary works.
3. Students apply a wide range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate texts. They draw on their prior experience, their interactions with other readers and writers, their knowledge of word meaning and of other texts, their word identification strategies, and their understanding of textual features (e.g., sound-letter correspondence, sentence structure, context, graphics).
4. Students adjust their use of spoken, written, and visual language (e.g., conventions, style, vocabulary) to communicate effectively with a variety of audiences and for different purposes.
6. Students apply knowledge of language structure, language conventions (e.g., spelling and punctuation), media techniques, figurative language, and genre to create, critique, and discuss print and nonprint texts.
7. Students conduct research on issues and interests by generating ideas and questions, and by posing problems. They gather, evaluate, and synthesize data from a variety of sources (e.g., print and nonprint texts, artifacts, people) to communicate their discoveries in ways that suit their purpose and audience.
11. Students participate as knowledgeable, reflective, creative, and critical members of a variety of literacy communities.
12. Students use spoken, written, and visual language to accomplish their own purposes (e.g., for learning, enjoyment, persuasion, and the exchange of information).

The National Standards for History are presented by The National Center for History in the Schools

U.S. History:

NSS-USH.5-12.7 Era 7: The Emergence of Modern America (1890-1930)

The student in grades 5-12:

Understands the changing role of the United States in world affairs through World War I.

World History:

NSS-WH.5-12.8 Era 8: A Half-Century of Crisis and Achievement, 1900-1945

The student in grades 5-12:

Understands the causes and global consequences of World War I.

National Standards for Social Studies Teachers prepared by National Council for the Social Studies

Thematic Standards:

I. Culture and Cultural Diversity

II. Time, Continuity, and Change

III. People, Places, and Environments

IV. Individual Development and Identity

VI. Power, Authority, and Governance

IX. Global Connections

X. Civic Ideals and Practices

The National Geography Standards are presented by The National Geographic Society.

NSS-G.K-12.1 The World in Spatial Terms

As a result of activities in grades K-12, all students should:

- Understand how to use maps and other geographic representations, tools and technologies to acquire, process, and report information from a spatial perspective.
- Understand how to use mental maps to organize information about people, places, and environments in a spatial context.
- Understand how to analyze the spatial organization of people, places, and environments on Earth's surface.

NSS-G.K-12.4 Human Systems

As a result of their activities in grades K-12, all students should:

- Understand how the forces of cooperation and conflict among people influence the division and control of Earth's surface.

NSS-G.K-12.6 The Uses of Geography

As a result of activities in grades K-12, all students should:

- Understand how to apply geography to interpret the past.
- Understand how to apply geography to interpret the present and plan for the future.